REVIEW ARTICLE

Open Access

Strategies and prospects of effective neural circuits reconstruction after spinal cord injury

Biao Yang^{1,2}, Feng Zhang^{1,2}, Feng Cheng^{1,2}, Liwei Ying^{1,2}, Chenggui Wang^{1,2}, Kesi Shi^{1,2}, Jingkai Wang^{1,2}, Kaishun Xia^{1,2}, Zhe Gong^{1,2}, Xianpeng Huang^{1,2}, Cao Yu^{1,2}, Fangcai Li^{1,2}, Chengzhen Liang^{1,2} and Qixin Chen^{1,2}

Abstract

Due to the disconnection of surviving neural elements after spinal cord injury (SCI), such patients had to suffer irreversible loss of motor or sensory function, and thereafter enormous economic and emotional burdens were brought to society and family. Despite many strategies being dealing with SCI, there is still no effective regenerative therapy. To date, significant progress has been made in studies of SCI repair strategies, including gene regulation of neural regeneration, cell or cell-derived exosomes and growth factors transplantation, repair of biomaterials, and neural signal stimulation. The pathophysiology of SCI is complex and multifaceted, and its mechanisms and processes are incompletely understood. Thus, combinatorial therapies have been demonstrated to be more effective, and lead to better neural circuits reconstruction and functional recovery. Combinations of biomaterials, stem cells, growth factors, drugs, and exosomes have been widely developed. However, simply achieving axon regeneration will not spontaneously lead to meaningful functional recovery. Therefore, the formation and remodeling of functional neural circuits also depend on rehabilitation exercises, such as exercise training, electrical stimulation (ES) and Brain–Computer Interfaces (BCIs). In this review, we summarize the recent progress in biological and engineering strategies for reconstructing neural circuits and promoting functional recovery after SCI, and emphasize current challenges and future directions.

Facts

- A variety of therapeutic strategies, including gene regulation of neural regeneration, cell or cell-derived exosomes and growth factors transplantation, repair of biomaterials, and neural signal stimulation, lead to axonal regeneration and neural circuit reconstruction related to functional recovery.
- The formation and remodeling of functional neural circuits also depend on rehabilitation exercises, such

Correspondence: Fangcai Li (lifangcai@zju.edu.cn) or Chengzhen Liang (liangchengzhen@zju.edu.cn) or

Qixin Chen (zrcqx@zju.edu.cn) ¹Department of Orthopedics Surgery, The Second Affiliated Hospital, Zhejiang University School of Medicine, 310009 Hangzhou, Zhejiang, China ²Zhejiang Key Laboratory of Bone and Joint Precision and Department of Orthopedics Research Institute of Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310009, China

These authors contributed equally: Biao Yang, Feng Zhang Edited by N. Bazan

© The Author(s) 2020

as exercise training, ES and BCIs.

• Combinatorial therapies have been demonstrated to be more effective, and lead to better neural circuits reconstruction and functional recovery.

Open questions

- What are the mechanisms of scar formation after SCI?
- What are the mechanisms that limit the effective formation and regeneration of new neural circuits?
- Is the formation and remodeling of functional neural circuits also depend on rehabilitation exercises, such as exercise training, ES and BCIs?

Introduction

Spinal cord injury (SCI) is a severely disabling disease that leads to loss of sensation, motor, and autonomic function¹. Patients with SCI have a higher risk of

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/. complications, such as bladder dysfunction, sexual dysfunction, gastrointestinal and respiratory problems, and urinary tract infection², resulting in death in severe cases. The leading cause of SCI in most regions is falls and road injuries³, and the other reasons include acts of violence, environmental heat and cold exposure, and sports/ recreation activities⁴. About 13% of patients with SCI worldwide suffer from limb dysfunction every year⁵. SCI is a devastating neurodegenerative disorder, which leads to the physical and psychological problems of patients and brings an enormous economic burden on patients, their families and the social medical system⁶.

The permanent disability after SCI is related to the failure of axon regeneration and neural circuit reconstruction¹. To date, there are no effective treatments that can completely regenerate axons after SCI. Over the past decade, significant progress has been made not only in traditional research fields, such as inflammation, scar formation, cell transplantation, axon regeneration, and biomaterial repair, but also in determining the mechanisms of spinal cord automation, spontaneous circuit reorganization and functional recovery after SCI^{7,8}. Because of the complexity issues of pathological processes that occur following SCI⁹, combinatorial strategies that solve the problems caused by different aspects are expected to be more effective, and lead to better functional recovery¹⁰. Combinations of biomaterials, stem cells, growth factors, drugs, and exosomes have been widely developed (Fig. 1). However, functional recovery depends on strengthening neuroplasticity to promote the growth of injured and spared axons, to increase the strength of the remaining connections and to promote the formation of new spontaneous circuits¹⁰. Therefore, the formation and remodeling of functional neural circuits also depend on rehabilitation exercises, such as exercise training, ES and BCIs (Fig. 1). In this review, we summarize the recent progress in biological and engineering strategies for reconstructing neural circuits and promoting functional recovery after SCI, and emphasize current challenges and future directions.

Pathophysiology

SCI is mainly caused by the mechanism of primary and secondary injury (Fig. 2). The primary injury is irreversible, which is related to the initial traumatic damage such as compression, stretch, laceration and hemorrhage, thus triggering a complex cascade of acute and chronic degenerative events that further disrupt neuronal function¹¹. During SCI, the primary injury leads to the production of free radicals¹² and a chronic state of causing ischemia and hypoxia¹³, resulting in glutamate excitotoxicity, lipid peroxidation, calcium influx, edema, and cellular damage¹⁴. Finally, inflammation and immune response affect the integrity of adjacent

tissues¹⁴. Secondary injury leads to demyelination of the axons, glial cell proliferation, the loss of damaged cells and the disconnection of living neurons, culminating in formation of a microenvironment that is not conducive to nerve regeneration¹⁵. In addition, in the chronic stage, glial/fibrotic scars that inhibit cellular infiltration¹⁶ can form an obstacle to axonal regeneration and extension¹⁷. Astrocytic scars are widely regarded as the main cause that transected axons fail to regrow after SCI18, but when pericyte-derived fibrotic scars are reduced at the lesion site, axonal regeneration and functional recovery will be promoted¹⁹. Extracellular matrix (ECM) proteins deposited within and around glial/fibrous scars limit axon growth, such as chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans (CSPGs), fibronectin, laminin, and collagen. Among them, CSPGs play a major role in inhibiting axon regeneration²⁰, including aggrecan, neurogen and neural/glial antigen²¹. Furthermore, myelin-associated inhibitors that strongly inhibit axon and myelin regeneration, including myelinassociated glycoprotein (MAG), Nogo, netrin, ephrins, and oligodendrocyte-myelin glycoprotein (OMgp), can lead to growth cone collapse after SCI²². Poor axon growth ability and inhibitory factors that hinder axon regeneration in the scar²³ lead to the failure of regeneration and repair of spinal cord and reconstruction of neural circuits. Therefore, the therapeutic focus is on how to promote axon regeneration, myelinate axons and reconstruct neural circuits.

Stem cells transplantation for SCI

Stem cells play a neuroprotective role by differentiating into specialized cell types to replace damaged cells and secreting factors to promote the survival and activity of these cells^{24,25} (Fig. 3). In addition, the mechanisms of stem cells that promote repair and function improvement include immunomodulation, anti-inflammatory effect, inhibition of scar formation, axon and myelin regeneration, and prevention of vascular loss or promotion of angiogenesis^{24–26} (Fig. 3).

Neural stem/progenitor cells

Neural stem/progenitor cells (NSCs/NPCs) can differentiate into neurons for the repair of nerve tissue damage caused by SCI, and into oligodendrocytes to promote axon regeneration and myelination^{25,27}. NSCs/ NPCs also can regulate astrocytes to protect tissue integrity²⁸ and improve the microenvironment of the injury site by secreting factors^{15,24}. For instance, a study showed that transplantation of the spinal cord-derived NSCs into the injury site produced massive amounts of excitatory neurons and axons that extend a long distance, leading to the robust regeneration of corticospinal cord²⁹. Another study showed that nine months





Fig. 2 Pathophysiological mechanism of SCI. During SCI, the primary injury leads to the production of free radicals and a chronic state of causing ischemia and hypoxia, resulting in glutamate excitotoxicity, lipid peroxidation, calcium influx, edema and cellular damage. Finally, inflammation and immune response affect the integrity of adjacent tissues. Secondary injury leads to demyelination of the axons, glial cell proliferation, the loss of damaged cells and the disconnection of living neurons, culminating in formation of a microenvironment that is not conducive to nerve regeneration.



after transplantation of human spinal cord-derived NPCs into the lesion site of the spinal cord, the grafts successfully differentiated into neurons and glial cells that reconstruct the neural tissue and local microenvironment, and the regeneration axons of the host and the grafts successfully were interconnected³⁰. However, due to the tendency that NSCs differentiate into astrocytes³¹, some measures, including ES³², gene modification³³, and the application of nanomaterials³⁴, should be taken. For instance, Wnt4-modified NSCs could activate MAPK/JNK and β -catenin pathway and inhibit the activation of NSCs into neurons, thus effectively repairing the damaged spinal cord and promoting the recovery of motor function³³.

Mesenchymal stem cells

Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) can be obtained from different types of tissues, including adipose tissue, placenta, umbilical cord, amniotic membrane and bone marrow^{25,31}, which can be expanded efficiently in vitro²⁵. Moreover, MSCs have the advantages of high biosafety, low immunogenicity, wide biological effects and immunomodulatory characteristics³⁵. MSCs can differentiate into neurons and glial cells after transplantation into the injury site³⁵ to reduce the area of glial scar and the size of the cavity, leading to the regeneration of nerve tissue, axon and myelin sheath³⁶. The use of MSCs for SCI has a wide range of biological mechanisms, including regulating immune response³⁷, promoting angiogenesis³⁸, antiapoptotic and anti-inflammatory effects^{39,40}. However, the most important mechanism is the paracrine effect of MSCs, which can release a variety of nutritional factors that protect the injury spinal cord tissue and promote nerve regeneration²⁴. In a separate study, the combination of MSCs and three-dimensional (3D) gelatin sponge could form a perineurium-like sheath that enwrapped the host myelin sheaths and axons, and form a physical and chemical barrier to protect the nerve fibers from oxidative damage by secreting nutrients, extracellular matrix and

antioxidant superoxide dismutase-3 (SOD-3)⁴¹. Some strategies such as gene modification, hypoxia preconditioning and improvement of the local microenvironment of the host can promote the survival and differentiation of transplanted MSCs^{42,43}. For instance, a recent study found that retinoic acid (RA), sonic hedgehog (SHH), and neurotrophic factors could efficiently induce human adipose-derived stem cells (hADSCs) into electrophysiologically active motoneuron-like cells (hADSC-MNs) in vitro⁴⁴. After hADSC-MNs were transplanted into the injury site, hADSC-MNs could survive well and improve the microenvironment by immunosuppression, thus promoting the reconstruction of the spinal circuit.

Embryonic stem cells

Embryonic stem cells (ESCs) can differentiate into three types of germ cells due to their great developmental and unlimited self-renewal ability 45 . Many transcription factors, including Nanog, Sox2 and OCT3/ 4, have been identified in human $ESCs^{45}$, which are used to induce fibroblasts and other somatic cells into pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs)⁴⁶. ESCs can differentiate into neurons and glial cells to repair damaged cells, and secrete active factors to regulate the immune response and provide nutrition support, ultimately leading to the regeneration of nerve tissue and axons, remyelination of axons, and the reconstruction of injury cortical circuits^{35,47–49}. For instance, a study conducted by Manley et al.⁵⁰ showed that oligodendrocyte progenitor cells (OPCs) derived from human ESCs could reduce the cavity of the injury site, increase the sparse myelinated axons, and significantly improve the motor function. Another recent study reported that human ESCs derived-NSCs significantly promoted recovery of motor function by reducing the size of the cavity and the area of glial scar⁵¹.

Induced pluripotent stem cells

Because previous stem cell sources such as ESCs and MSCs are still plagued by the immune, ethical and clinical concern, iPSCs are an alternative with significant advantages⁵². iPSCs were initially obtained by viral transduction of transcription factors in differentiated somatic cells, such as tumour suppressor Krüppel-like factor 4 [KLF4], OCT3/4, Sox2, and proto-oncogene c-MYC⁵³. IPSCs also can be obtained from somatic cells after genetic reprogramming by the combination of other transcription factors⁵⁴ and reprogramming molecules^{55,56} that promote the expression of core transcription factors such as Oct4, Sox2 and Nanog⁵⁷. iPSCs can be differentiated into neurons, astrocytes and oligodendrocytes to replace damaged cells⁵⁸, regulate the microenvironment of the spinal cord by secreting growth factors⁵⁹, and promote the regeneration of axons and myelin sheath, thus reconstructing the neural circuit that promotes functional recovery⁶⁰. For instance, a recent study found that three months after transplantation of iPSCs-derived NSCs into the injury spinal cord, iPSCs-derived NSCs survived and successfully differentiated into neurons, which extended a large number of axons from the injury site and formed synapses with host neurons, leading to the reconstruction of the neural network⁶¹. Another study conducted by Fan and his colleagues showed that iPSCs-derived NSCs loaded in 3D gelatin methacrylate (GelMA) hydrogel reduced inflammation by reducing activated macrophages/microglia, inhibited the formation of glial scar, and reduced the area of the cavity, thus promoting axonal regeneration after SCI⁶².

Olfactory ensheathing cells

Olfactory ensheathing cells (OECs) promote axon regeneration and remyelination by inhibiting inflammation of the spinal cord, reducing the glial scar and cavity⁶³, and promoting angiogenesis, contributing to the reconstruction of the injury neural network⁶⁴. Moreover, OECs have shown higher levels of growth factors secretion, which can promote the survival and activity of neurons and their axons extension, thus improving tissue repair and functional recovery^{65,66}. For example, a recent study found that intravenous OECs transplantation into the injury site significantly decreased local inflammation, thus promoting axon and myelin sheath regeneration related to function recovery⁶⁷. Combinatorial therapies can be used to improve the regeneration efficiency of OECs in the SCI model. For instance, another recent study reported that combining adipose tissue-derived stromal cells (ASCs) with strong paracrine effect with OECs that can induce axonal growth could significantly improve the motor function by reducing the inflammatory response and astrocyte proliferation⁶⁸.

Schwann cells

Schwann cells (SCs) are the main glial cells in the peripheral nervous system (PNS), which are widely used in the repair of SCI because of their role in neuroprotection, promoting axon regeneration and myelination^{25,69}. SCs play a neuroprotective role by inhibiting the activity of pro-inflammatory microglia and macrophages to regulate the local microenvironment⁷⁰. Besides, SCs can secrete a variety of active factors to reduce nerve cell death and the cavity formation²⁵. However, combinatorial strategies are often used to improve the effect of SCs transplantation. For example, a study showed that ECM-derived matrices such as Matrigel were used to carry SCs, which improved the survival of SCs in the transplanted site of SCI, and significantly promoted the growth of axons to improve the motor function⁷¹.

Exosomes derived from stem cells

The mechanisms of stem cell-based therapy are mediated by exosomes released by stem cells, and microRNA in these exosomes is the main factor to play the therapeutic effect⁷². Exosomes can transmit biological signals between cells and participate in a variety of physiological and pathological processes⁷³. Exosomes derived from stem cells are expected to be a new strategy for the treatment of SCI. Exosomes have the functions of neuroprotection, angiogenesis, immune regulation, antiinflammatory, anti-apoptosis, and axon regeneration, which can promote the repair and regeneration of nerve tissue^{74,75}. For example, a study showed that the human umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cells (hucMSC) derived exosomes could effectively induce macrophages derived from bone marrow to polarize from M1 phenotype to M2 phenotype, and reduce inflammatory factors such as IL-6, IFN- γ and TNF- α , thus promoting functional recovery after SCI⁷⁶. Another study found that NSCs-derived exosomes reduced the extent of SCI, repaired the injury site, and promoted the functional recovery by reducing the neuroinflammatory response, microglia activation and neuronal apoptosis⁷⁷. Combined with the advantages of exosomes, exosomes for molecular targeted drug delivery are expected to become the next generation of intelligent engineering biomaterials for precision medicine⁷⁸. For instance, as shown in the study by Kim et al., iron oxide nanoparticle (IONP)-incorporated exosome-mimetic nanovesicles from IONP-treated human mesenchymal stem cells (hMSCs) could target the injury spinal cord under magnetic guidance⁷⁹. Compared with the exosomes from hMSCs alone, it significantly reduced inflammation, inhibited apoptosis and promoted vascular regeneration, leading to significant improvement in functional recovery after SCI. In another study, MSCs-derived exosomes loaded with phosphatase and tensin homolog siRNA significantly reduced the proliferation of astrocytes and microglia, promoted the formation of new blood vessels and axons regeneration, thus promoting the functional recovery after SCI⁸⁰.

Biomaterials

Biomaterials can improve the local microenvironment and promote the survival of nerve cells by reducing the inflammatory response, improving cell retention, inhibiting cell necrosis or apoptosis, and reducing the formation of the glial scar, thus reconnecting the injury spinal cord tissue, reconstructing the nerve conduction circuit, and ultimately promoting the motor recovery after SCI⁸¹. As a method of regenerative medicine, biomaterials containing cells, drugs and bioactive molecules can repair or replace the function and anatomical structure of the damaged tissue⁸². However, the main neural mechanism of functional biomaterials that promote motor function recovery depends on the formation of neuronal bridging, rather than the long-distance regeneration of the descending motor axon and ascending sensory axon⁸³. Although various forms of biomaterials can be used, hydrogels, nanomaterials and 3D printing materials represent an attractive form for spinal cord repair.

The hydrogel has the characteristics of the porous structure, high water content and sol-gel transformation under certain conditions, which is widely used in tissue engineering, cell therapy and drug delivery⁸⁴. Therefore, the hydrogel is currently an ideal carrier because it can mimic ECM to provide suitable microenvironment and support for stem cells⁸⁵. Moreover, the hydrogel can provide the proper 3D networks for axonal growth, and promote axonal regeneration, synaptic reconnection and reconstruction of neural circuits by carrying various drugs and growth factors⁸. For instance, a recent report by Caron et al. described the use of 3D biomimetic agarose/ carbomer hydrogel and hMSCs that optimize the density, vitality and paracrine transport could significantly increase M2 macrophage population to improve the microenvironment of the injury site⁸⁶. Papa et al.⁸⁷ further found that human chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2 (hCCL2) secreted by hMSCs could promote macrophage recruitment and transformation to M2 phenotype to play a neuroprotective role, thus preventing motor neuron degeneration to improve the motor function after SCI. The responsive hydrogel can respond to stimuli such as ions, pH, temperature, enzyme and electromagnetic fields, resulting in changes in its physical and chemical properties to better mimic the dynamic natural 3D cell microenvironment⁸⁸. For example, a study found that composite hydrogels consisting of alginate, chitosan and genipin were high sensitivity to Ca_2^+ concentration, which could alleviate the secondary injury caused by the overload of Ca2+ and control the astrocyte behavior, leading to the recovery of motor function⁸⁹. In addition, the spinal cord can conduct and transmit bioelectric signal to play a vital role in promoting axon growth, nerve regeneration⁹⁰ and nerve circuits remodeling⁹¹. For instance, a study showed that conductive hydrogels could inhibit astrocyte development and promote differentiation of NSCs into neurons, thus improving the recovery of motor function after SCI⁹².

3D printing technology allows the manufacture of precise anatomical and personalized scaffolds to stimulate and guide axonal regeneration and elongation. The injury host axons regenerate into 3D printing scaffolds, while implanted NPCs extend axons out of the scaffolds and form synaptic connections with each other to restore synaptic transmission, thus significantly improving the host motor function⁹³. To improve biocompatibility or for a special purpose, 3D printing scaffolds can be modified, biochemical functionalized and mechanically tuned to promote stem cell proliferation, adhesion, and differentiation⁹⁴. In a separate study, 3D printing poly-lacticco-glycolic acid (PLGA) scaffolds provided a favorable 3D environment for the regeneration of nerve cells and neurogliocytes⁹⁵. Another recent study conducted by Sun et al. showed that 3D printing collagen/chitosan scaffolds could promote neural regeneration, reduce scar formation, and partially reconstruct the permissive microenvironment of axon regeneration, ultimately promoting functional recovery⁹⁶. Joung and his colleagues put NPCs and OPCs from iPSCs in the precise position of 3D printing scaffolds to construct the bionic spinal cord, which is helpful to reconstruct the functional axon connection of the injury site⁹⁷.

Due to their unique structures and properties, nanomaterials can be used in the diagnosis and treatment of neurological diseases, and be designed as drug delivery carriers that cross the blood-brain barrier (BBB) and deliver specific molecules to target cells, which have better safety and efficacy than traditional simple drug treatment⁹⁸. Besides, nanomaterials can promote the extravasation and system clearance of the BBB and maintain the high activity of neural cells after entering cells, and surface modification of nanomaterials can also enhance biocompatibility and selective targeting via cell surface receptor interaction⁹⁹. For instance, a study conducted by Papa et al. showed that poly-ε-caprolactone (PCL) nanoparticles (NPs) loaded with minocycline could selectively target and regulate the activated pro-inflammatory microglia to reduce the secondary injury and improve the microenvironment of the injury site, thus promoting axon regeneration¹⁰⁰. Another study conducted by the same research group showed that a nano-structured gel loaded with rolipram targeting A1 astrocytes could reduce nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and Lipocalin 2 (Lcn2) to reduce inflammation caused by activated astrocytes, thus protecting nerve cells and promoting the recovery of motor function after SCI¹⁰¹. Our group constructed targeting scar tissue and esterase-responsive nano-micelles. After being activated, the micelles were endocytosed and degraded by microglia, resulting in a decrease in accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the transformation of M1 to M2 microglia population, thus protecting nerve cells and promoting the recovery of motor function¹⁰².

Growth factors

Growth factors are a family of proteins regulating biological development and neural function, which can regulate the survival of neurons, promote the release of neurotransmitters, promote the recovery of synaptic function, and induce the growth and remodeling of axons¹⁰³. However, various types of growth factors have different functions in repairing SCI. For example, neurotrophin-3 (NT-3), neurotrophin-4 (NT-4) and neurotrophin-5 (NT-5) have the function of protecting damaged neurons and promoting the growth and differentiation of neurons²⁴. Nerve growth factor (NGF) can support the survival of neurons and promote the growth, differentiation and synapse formation of neurons, thus promoting nerve regeneration, neural network remodeling and motor function recovery¹⁰⁴. Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) has neuroprotective effects on 5serotonin, dopaminergic, cholinergic and GABA neurons by promoting the growth of neurons, the regeneration and sprouting of axons, and the formation of remyelination of axons¹⁰³. Glial cell-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF) can reduce inflammation and lesion volume, improve pain, and promote axon regeneration, which also has a positive regulatory effect on astrocyte proliferation¹⁰⁵. Fibroblast growth factors (FGFs), including FGF1, FGF2, FGF4 and FGF10, can alleviate the secondary injury such as inflammation and astrocyte activation, stimulate axon regeneration and angiogenesis, and protect damaged neurons¹⁰⁶. Insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1) plays an antioxidant and pro-survival role to promote the differentiation and survival of oligodendrocytes and the growth and survival of axons, and increase the formation of regenerated axonal myelin sheath¹⁰⁷. Ciliary neurotrophic factor (CNTF) can promote the survival of damaged neurons and oligodendrocytes and the long-distance regeneration of axons¹⁰⁸. Given the complexity of the pathological process following SCI, it is necessary to use multiple growth factors according to different pathological mechanisms and the effects of growth factors. For example, a study showed that osteopontin, IGF-1 and CNTF could reactivate the growth ability of spinal neurons, FGF2 and epidermal growth factor (EGF) could induce growth support, and GDNF could chemically attract axon growth. A combination of above growth factors whose cooperative effects were required to stimulate the regeneration of robust intrinsic axons, thus enhancing recovery after SCI¹⁰⁹. Due to the short half-life of growth factors, they are often delivered in combination with biomaterials. A study found that chitosan biomaterials were used for sustained release of NT-3 into the injured spinal cords, where this combinatorial therapy could promote the activation of endogenous NSCs to differentiate into neurons, thus reconnecting the damaged axons to form functional neural networks, leading to the recovery of function¹¹⁰. We previously reported that loaded FGF4 heparin-laponite hydrogels could significantly reduce inflammation, inhibit astrocyte proliferation and scar formation, and promote axonal regeneration and remyelination of axons by increasing stable microtubules and activating mitochondria release¹¹¹.



Rehabilitation

After SCI, the ascending sensation and descending input of the spinal cord is interrupted, and the axon of corticospinal cord retracts so that it cannot regenerate, resulting in permanent loss of function¹¹². However, simply achieving axon regeneration will not spontaneously lead to meaningful functional recovery. Therefore, it is widely recognized that the formation and remodeling of functional neural circuits also depends on strengthening neuroplasticity¹¹³, such as exercise training, ES and BCIs (Fig. 4). Exercise training can improve the function of spinal motor neurons and the remodeling function of the cerebral cortex, thus increasing neuronal activity to strengthen the reorganization of neural pathways¹¹⁴. ES can regulate the excitability of the spinal circuit¹¹⁵, restore muscle strength and quality, and induce the plasticity of nerve, thus promoting the recovery of function¹¹⁶. BCIs are an emerging technology that translates brain activity into motor actions¹¹⁷, which enable direct communication between the brain and electronic devices, thus recording and modulating neural activity to restore lost function¹¹⁸.

Exercise training

Exercise training can reduce apoptosis, increase growth factor levels such as IGF, BDNF, and NGF, decrease inflammation, and promote neurogenesis to protect neurovascular units and strengthen spared functions of the spinal cord^{119,120}. Moreover, exercise training can reduce the size of syringomyelia and the area of glial scar to promote the regeneration of axons, the remodeling of synapses, and the remyelination of axons¹²¹. In addition, by enhancing or replacing the residual spinal cord and muscle function, exercise training can remodel the neural circuit to promote the recovery of motor function¹²². Through remolding the function of skeletal muscle and cerebral cortex, exercise training can regulate the physiological metabolism function of spinal motor neurons, and improve the function from end effectors such as skeletal muscle to the cerebral cortex in different degrees¹²³.

Electrical stimulation

ES can accelerate axon growth and myelin sheath formation¹²⁴, stimulate neurons to discharge bioelectric signal to strengthen muscle contraction, thus reconnecting the neural network of spinal cord¹¹⁵. Therefore, the baseline excitability of neural circuits is regulated by ES, such as epidural electrical stimulation (EES) and transcutaneous spinal cord stimulation (tSCS), leading to action potential within and between neural circuits by regulating excitability further or closer to the motor threshold¹²⁵. ES also recruits local neurosuppressive neurotransmitters across synaptic sites by stimulating the amount of neurostimulation of afferent nerve fibers, thus enhancing the release capacity of neurotransmitters¹²⁶. A clinical study has suggested that EES may promote the recovery of the sensorimotor network of the spinal cord after SCI by producing robust and coordinated spinal motor output, thus producing independent standing and gait¹²⁷. In another clinical study, EES restored the voluntary control of walking in patients with severe or complete paralysis caused by SCI four years ago despite full rehabilitation¹²⁸. TSCS is a new, non-invasive and promising technology, which can stimulate the spinal cord from the surface of the skin and reach the spinal cord network by using high current and unique waveform ES. For instance, Inanici and his colleagues used tSCS to significantly restore upper limb movement and sensation in an elderly patient with incomplete SCI, indicating that tSCS can promote neuroplasticity and long-term recovery¹²⁹.

Brain-computer interfaces

In recent years BCIs technology has become a research hotspot. BCIs, as the foundation of a new generation of the neuroprosthetic device, can control external devices to achieve substantial function by recording the electrical signals from the brain such as electroencephalography (EEG) or electrocorticography (ECoG)¹³⁰ (Fig. 5). The prosthesis consists of implanted electrodes that record the expected motion of the paralyzed part of the body, computer algorithm that decode the expected motion signal¹³¹ (Fig. 5). The computer decodes the electronic signals from the motor cortex to drive robotic systems or stimulate muscles to recover the paralyzed person's movement¹³². Moreover, the combination of BCIs and sensory cortex can enhance the flexibility and fine control of limbs¹³³.

Combining BCIs with functional ES or robotic therapies provide hope for patients without residual motor function, which can retrain the connection between central and peripheral to reconstruct nerve circuits. BCIs combined with robotic systems such as exoskeletons and orthotics have become a new therapeutic modality to help or rehabilitate patients with limb disability. For example, Hochberg et al.¹³⁴ reported that two patients with long-term quadriplegia used a BCI-based robotic arm to control and perform 3D stretching and grasping movements. The results showed that they could control the arm and hand over a wide space, and even one of them could use a robotic arm to drink coffee in the bottle. Benabid and his colleagues used an exoskeleton system controlled by an epidural wireless BCI to enable patients to use virtual avatars at home, control walking simulation procedures cortically, perform different stretching and touch tasks¹³⁵. BCIs combined with functional electrical stimulation (BCIs-FES) can be used to activate the paralyzed muscle through ES¹³⁶, transmit the electrical pulse directly to the peripheral nerve and muscle tissue to cause contraction and assist specific body movements¹¹⁵. For instance, a study conducted by Capogrosso et al. showed that the BCI-FES restored non-human primates weight-bearing movement of paralyzed legs on the treadmill and the ground six days after injury without prior training¹³⁷. Another clinical study by Ajiboye et al. showed that the BCI-FES could successfully control coordinated movements of single-joint and multijoint arms, achieve point-to-point target capture, and recover both stretching and grasping movements of patients with tetraplegia due to SCI¹³⁸. Compared with motor function recovery, sensory function recovery is a higher requirement for SCI patients, and also a key step of BCI technology in clinical application. Microstimulation of the somatosensory cortex provides the potential to create sensory prosthetic limbs to restore sensory function¹³⁹. For instance, a study conducted by O'Doherty et al. found that BCIs based-on sensory function recovery controlled the exploratory arrival movement of the actuator, and sent out the artificial tactile feedback signal via intracortical microstimulation (ICMS)¹⁴⁰. ICMS of the primary somatosensory cortex can produce somatosensory sensation, which may become a method of sensory prosthesis in the future¹⁴¹.

Combinatorial therapies

So far, due to the complexity of the pathological process of SCI, combinatorial therapies may be more effective, thus maximizing the effect of treatment of SCI. Some of these combinatorial strategies have been discussed in the previous paragraphs, and we will further develop them (Table 1). For example, MSCs improved the microenvironment of NSCs and promoted the survival of transplanted NSCs. Therefore, MSCs combined with NSCs could significantly improve the motor function after SCI142. Overexpression of IGF-1 in MSCs increased immune regulation, cell survival and myelination. Transplantation of IGF-1 overexpressed MSCs could significantly promote nerve regeneration after SCI¹⁰⁷. IGF-1 inhibitd the inflammatory response and apoptosis via miR-219a-2-3p/YY1 mechanism and enhanced the neuroprotective effect of NSCs-derived exosomes, and their combinations significantly promoted the recovery of motor function¹⁴³. The combination of gelatin sponge scaffold with NT-3 could create a favorable microenvironment, reduce inflammation and cavity formation, and induce the migration of endogenous nerve cells into



the injury site to promote the regeneration of nerve and axon¹⁴⁴. MnO₂ NPs effectively enhanced the activity of MSCs by alleviating local oxidation environment, and hydrogel could promote cell adhesion growth and bridge spinal cord tissue. Therefore, combinations of MSCs and MnO2 NPs-dotted hydrogel induced neural differentiation of MSCs, resulting in the efficient regeneration of spinal cord tissue to significantly promote the recovery of motor function¹⁴⁵. Co-culture of TrkC-gene-modified NSCs and NT-3-gene-modified SCs on the gelatin sponge scaffold to construct the neural network tissue. After transplanted into the SCI model in canine, it could significantly promote the regeneration of nerve fibers and integrate with the host neural circuit synapses, thus becoming a neuron relay to transmit the excitatory electrical signal through the lesion site¹⁴⁶.

However, the reconstruction of neural circuits after SCI also depends on rehabilitation strategies, such as exercise training, ES, and BCIs. For example, combinatorial treatment of MSCs and exercise training could promote the protection of nerve tissue and enhance the recovery of motor function after SCI¹⁴⁷. EES combined with high-intensity treadmill training enabled patients to walk on the ground, stand independently, and maintain trunk stability compared with individual exercise

training¹⁴⁸. Combinations of visual-tactile feedback, noninvasive BCIs and assisted exercise training significantly restored the patients' motor function and part of sensory function, even part of intestinal, urinary and sexual functions¹⁴⁹.

Conclusions and perspectives

The pathophysiology of SCI is complex and multifaceted, and its mechanisms and processes are incompletely understood. Thus, combinatorial therapies have been demonstrated to be more effective, and lead to better neural circuits reconstruction and functional recovery. Combinations of biomaterials, stem cells, growth factors, drugs and exosomes have been widely developed. However, simply achieving axon regeneration will not spontaneously lead to meaningful functional recovery. Therefore, the formation and remodeling of functional neural circuits also depend on rehabilitation exercises, such as exercise training, ES and BCIs.

It is believed that in the future we can analyze and record the nerve signals, and regulate the nerve signals through cell transplantation and molecular regulation after SCI. By stimulating local nerve circuits related to sensorimotor control and spinal cord autonomy, the

Table 1 Combinatorial strategies for SCI.

Combinatorial strategies	Animal model	SCI type	Follow up time	Comments about combination group	Reference
MSCs and NSCs	Rat	T10, contusion injury	8 weeks	MSCs improved the microenvironment of NSCs and promoted the survival of transplanted NSCs. MSCs combined with NSCs could significantly improve the motor function.	142
IGF-1 and MSCs	Mouse	T10, contusion injury	4 weeks	Overexpression of IGF-1 in MSCs increased immune regulation, cell survival and myelination. Transplantation of IGF-1 overexpressed MSCs could significantly promote nerve regeneration after SCI.	107
NSCs-derived exosomes and IGF-1	Rat	T10, contusion injury	4 weeks	IGF-1 inhibited the inflammatory response and apoptosis via miR-219a-2-3p/YY1 mechanism and enhanced the neuroprotective effect of NSCs-derived exosomes, and their combinations significantly promoted the recovery of motor function.	143
Gelatin sponge scaffold and NT-3	Rat and canine	T10, transection and hemisection	4 weeks	The combination of gelatin sponge scaffold with NT-3 could create a favorable microenvironment, reduce inflammation and cavity formation, and induce the migration of endogenous nerve cells into the injury site to promote the regeneration of nerve and axon.	144
MSCs and MnO2 NPs-dotted hydrogel	Rat	T10, transection	4 weeks	MnO2 NPs effectively enhanced the activity of MSCs by alleviating local oxidation environment, and hydrogel could promote cell adhesion growth and bridge spinal cord tissue. Therefore, combinations of MSCs and MnO2 NPs-dotted hydrogel induced neural differentiation of MSCs, resulting in the efficient regeneration of spinal cord tissue to significantly promote the recovery of motor function.	145
TrkC-gene modified NSCs, NT-3-gene modified SCs and gelatin sponge scaffold	Canine	T10, transection	24 weeks	Co-culture of TrkC-gene-modified NSCs and NT-3-gene- modified SCs on the gelatin sponge scaffold to construct the neural network tissue. it could significantly promote the regeneration of nerve fibers and integrate with the host neural circuit synapses, thus becoming a neuron relay to transmit the excitatory electrical signal through the lesion site.	146
MSCs and exercise training	Mouse	T10, aneurysm clip	8 weeks	Combinatorial treatment of MSCs and exercise training could promote the protection of nerve tissue and enhance the recovery of motor function after SCI.	147
EES and high-intensity treadmill training	Human	Not mentioned	85 weeks and 15 weeks	EES combined with high-intensity treadmill training enabled patients to walk on the ground, stand independently, and maintain trunk stability compared with individual exercise training.	148
BCls, visuo-tactile feedback and assisted exercise training	Human	Not mentioned	112 weeks	Combinations of visual-tactile feedback, noninvasive BCIs and assisted exercise training significantly restored the patients' motor function and part of sensory function, even part of intestinal, urinary and sexual functions.	149

protection, maintenance and even re-bridging of nerve circuits can be achieved. The relevant nerve circuits are fine-tuned, and then the corresponding nerve circuits are trained and strengthened by various rehabilitation methods. It can help the individual with SCI to resume autonomous movement as soon as possible, and ultimately promote the research and treatment of SCI to achieve more enormous breakthroughs in many fields.

Acknowledgements

This paper was supported by grants from Medical Science and Technology Project of Zhejiang Province of China [No. 2020385155], Public welfare technology research and social development project of science and Technology Department of Zhejiang Province of China [No. LGF19H060014], Scientific Research Fund of Zhejiang Provincial Education Department [No. Y201941476], and the National Natural Science Foundation of China [NO. 81972096, NO. 81401822, NO. 81572177, and NO. 81472504].

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Publisher's note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Received: 10 December 2019 Revised: 16 May 2020 Accepted: 18 May 2020 Published online: 08 June 2020

References

- Sofroniew, M. V. Dissecting spinal cord regeneration. Nature 557, 343–350 (2018).
- Picoli, C. C. et al. Pericytes act as key players in spinal cord injury. Arn. J. Pathol. 189, 1327–1337 (2019).
- James, S. L. et al. Global, regional, and national burden of neurological disorders, 1990-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. *Lancet Neurol.* 18, 459–480 (2019).
- Venkatesh, K., Ghosh, S. K., Mullick, M., Manivasagam, G. & Sen, D. Spinal cord injury: pathophysiology, treatment strategies, associated challenges, and future implications. *Cell Tissue Res.* 377, 125–151 (2019).
- Savage, N. The mind-reading devices that can free paralysed muscles. *Nature* 555, S12–S14 (2018).
- Yuan, S., Shi, Z., Cao, F., Li, J. & Feng, S. Epidemiological features of spinal cord injury in china: a systematic review. *Front Neurol.* 9, 683 (2018).
- 7. Holmes, D. Spinal-cord injury: spurring regrowth. Nature 552, S49 (2017).
- Courtine, G. & Sofroniew, M. V. Spinal cord repair: advances in biology and technology. *Nat. Med.* 25, 898–908 (2019).
- David, G. et al. Traumatic and nontraumatic spinal cord injury: pathological insights from neuroimaging. *Nat. Rev. Neurol.* 15, 718–731 (2019).
- Hutson, T. H. & Di Giovanni, S. The translational landscape in spinal cord injury: focus on neuroplasticity and regeneration. *Nat. Rev. Neurol.* 15, 732–745 (2019).
- Orr, M. B. & Gensel, J. C. Spinal cord injury scarring and inflammation: therapies targeting glial and inflammatory responses. *Neurotherapeutics* 15, 541–553 (2018).
- 12. Cizkova, D. et al. Spinal cord injury: animal models, imaging tools and the treatment strategies. *Neurochem. Res.* **45**, 134–143 (2020).
- 13. Li, Y. et al. Pericytes impair capillary blood flow and motor function after chronic spinal cord injury. *Nat. Med.* **23**, 733–741 (2017).
- Hilton, B. J., Moulson, A. J. & Tetzlaff, W. Neuroprotection and secondary damage following spinal cord injury: concepts and methods. *Neurosci. Lett.* 652, 3–10 (2017).
- Dell'Anno, M. T. et al. Human neuroepithelial stem cell regional specificity enables spinal cord repair through a relay circuit. *Nat. Commun.* 9, 3419 (2018).
- Adams, K. L. & Gallo, V. The diversity and disparity of the glial scar. Nat. Neurosci. 21, 9–15 (2018).
- 17. Mahar, M. & Cavalli, V. Intrinsic mechanisms of neuronal axon regeneration. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **19**, 323–337 (2018).
- Anderson, M. A. et al. Astrocyte scar formation aids central nervous system axon regeneration. *Nature* 532, 195–200 (2016).
- Dias, D. O. et al. Reducing pericyte-derived scarring promotes recovery after spinal cord injury. *Cell* **173**, 153–165 e122 (2018).
- Tran, A. P., Warren, P. M. & Silver, J. The biology of regeneration failure and success after spinal cord injury. *Physiological Rev.* 98, 881–917 (2018).
- Rosenzweig, E. S. et al. Chondroitinase improves anatomical and functional outcomes after primate spinal cord injury. *Nat. Neurosci.* 22, 1269–1275 (2019).

- 22. Poplawski, G. H. D. et al. Adult rat myelin enhances axonal outgrowth from neural stem cells. *Sci. Transl. Med.* **10**, eaal2563 (2018).
- Ruschel, J. et al. Axonal regeneration. Systemic administration of epothilone B promotes axon regeneration after spinal cord injury. *Science* 348, 347–352 (2015).
- 24. Veneruso, V. et al. Stem cell paracrine effect and delivery strategies for spinal cord injury regeneration. *J. Control. Release* **300**, 141–153 (2019).
- Vismara, I., Papa, S., Rossi, F., Forloni, G. & Veglianese, P. Current options for cell therapy in spinal cord injury. *Trends Mol. Med.* 23, 831–849 (2017).
- Assinck, P., Duncan, G. J., Hilton, B. J., Plemel, J. R. & Tetzlaff, W. Cell transplantation therapy for spinal cord injury. *Nat. Neurosci.* 20, 637–647 (2017).
- Yu, C. et al. The application of neural stem/progenitor cells for regenerative therapy of spinal cord injury. *Curr. Stem Cell Res Ther.* 14, 495–503 (2019).
- Stenudd, M., Sabelstrom, H. & Frisen, J. Role of endogenous neural stem cells in spinal cord injury and repair. JAMA Neurol. 72, 235–237 (2015).
- Kumamaru, H. et al. Generation and post-injury integration of human spinal cord neural stem cells. *Nat. Methods* 15, 723–731 (2018).
- Rosenzweig, E. S. et al. Restorative effects of human neural stem cell grafts on the primate spinal cord. *Nat. Med.* 24, 484–490 (2018).
- Gong, Z. et al. Stem cell transplantation: a promising therapy for spinal cord injury. *Curr. Stem Cell Res. Ther.* 15, 321–331 (2019).
- Zhu, R. et al. Electrical stimulation affects neural stem cell fate and function in vitro. *Exp. Neurol.* **319**, 112963 (2019).
- Li, X. et al. Wnt4-modified NSC transplantation promotes functional recovery after spinal cord injury. FASEB J. 34, 82–94 (2020).
- Zhang, B. et al. Nanomaterials in neural-stem-cell-mediated regenerative medicine: imaging and treatment of neurological diseases. *Adv. Mater.* 30, e1705694 (2018).
- Shao, A., Tu, S., Lu, J. & Zhang, J. Crosstalk between stem cell and spinal cord injury: pathophysiology and treatment strategies. *Stem Cell Res. Ther.* 10, 238 (2019).
- Hakim, R. et al. Mesenchymal stem cells transplanted into spinal cord injury adopt immune cell-like characteristics. *Stem Cell Res. Ther.* **10**, 115 (2019).
- 37. Gao, F. et al. Mesenchymal stem cells and immunomodulation: current status and future prospects. *Cell Death Dis.* **7**, e2062 (2016).
- Maldonado-Lasuncion, I., Verhaagen, J. & Oudega, M. Mesenchymal stem cell-macrophage choreography supporting spinal cord repair. *Neurotherapeutics* 15, 578–587 (2018).
- Shi, Y. et al. Immunoregulatory mechanisms of mesenchymal stem and stromal cells in inflammatory diseases. *Nat. Rev. Nephrol.* 14, 493–507 (2018).
- Park, K. Functional recovery in spinal cord injury using mesenchymal stem cells. J. Control Release 278, 159 (2018).
- Ma, Y. H. et al. Perineurium-like sheath derived from long-term surviving mesenchymal stem cells confers nerve protection to the injured spinal cord. *Biomaterials* 160, 37–55 (2018).
- Luo, Z. et al. Hypoxia preconditioning promotes bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells survival by inducing HIF-1alpha in injured neuronal cells derived exosomes culture system. *Cell Death Dis.* **10**, 134 (2019).
- Li, H. et al. Mitochondrial transfer from bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells to motor neurons in spinal cord injury rats via gap junction. *Theranostics* 9, 2017–2035 (2019).
- Gao, S. et al. Differentiation of human adipose-derived stem cells into neuron/motoneuron-like cells for cell replacement therapy of spinal cord injury. *Cell Death Dis.* **10**, 597 (2019).
- Hassani, S. N., Moradi, S., Taleahmad, S., Braun, T. & Baharvand, H. Transition of inner cell mass to embryonic stem cells: mechanisms, facts, and hypotheses. *Cell Mol. Life Sci.* **76**, 873–892 (2019).
- Song, C. G. et al. Stem cells: a promising candidate to treat neurological disorders. *Neural Regen. Res.* 13, 1294–1304 (2018).
- Zhou, P. et al. Cell therapeutic strategies for spinal cord injury. Adv. Wound care 8, 585–605 (2019).
- Deng, J., Zhang, Y., Xie, Y., Zhang, L. & Tang, P. Cell transplantation for spinal cord injury: tumorigenicity of induced pluripotent stem cell-derived neural stem/progenitor cells. *Stem Cells Int.* **2018**, 5653787 (2018).
- Michelsen, K. A. et al. Area-specific reestablishment of damaged circuits in the adult cerebral cortex by cortical neurons derived from mouse embryonic stem cells. *Neuron* 85, 982–997 (2015).
- Manley, N. C., Priest, C. A., Denham, J., Wirth, E. D. 3rd & Lebkowski, J. S. Human embryonic stem cell-derived oligodendrocyte progenitor cells: preclinical efficacy and safety in cervical spinal cord injury. *Stem Cells Transl. Med.* 6, 1917–1929 (2017).

- Zarei-Kheirabadi, M. et al. Human embryonic stem cell-derived neural stem cells encapsulated in hyaluronic acid promotes regeneration in a contusion spinal cord injured rat. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* 148, 1118–1129 (2020).
- Trawczynski, M., Liu, G., David, B. T. & Fessler, R. G. Restoring motor neurons in spinal cord injury with induced pluripotent stem cells. *Front Cell Neurosci.* 13, 369 (2019).
- Takahashi, K & Yamanaka, S. Induction of pluripotent stem cells from mouse embryonic and adult fibroblast cultures by defined factors. *Cell* **126**, 663–676 (2006).
- Yu, J. Y. et al. Induced pluripotent stem cell lines derived from human somatic cells. *Science* **318**, 1917–1920 (2007).
- Zhu, S. Y. et al. Reprogramming of human primary somatic cells by OCT4 and chemical compounds. *Cell. Stem Cell.* 7, 651–655 (2010).
- Li, W. et al. Identification of Oct4-activating compounds that enhance reprogramming efficiency. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA 109, 20853–20858 (2012).
- 57. Robinton, D. A. & Daley, G. Q. The promise of induced pluripotent stem cells in research and therapy. *Nature* **481**, 295–305 (2012).
- Ramotowski, C., Qu, X. & Villa-Diaz, L. G. Progress in the use of induced pluripotent stem cell-derived neural cells for traumatic spinal cord injuries in animal populations: meta-analysis and review. *Stem Cells Transl. Med.* 8, 681–693 (2019).
- Yousefifard, M. et al. Neural stem/progenitor cell transplantation for spinal cord injury treatment; a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Neuroscience* 322, 377–397 (2016).
- Tsuji, O. et al. Concise review: laying the groundwork for a first-in-human study of an induced pluripotent stem cell-based intervention for spinal cord injury. Stem Cells 37, 6–13 (2019).
- 61. Lu, P. et al. Long-distance axonal growth from human induced pluripotent stem cells after spinal cord injury. *Neuron* **83**, 789–796 (2014).
- Fan, L. et al. Directing induced pluripotent stem cell derived neural stem cell fate with a three-dimensional biomimetic hydrogel for spinal cord injury repair. ACS Appl Mater. Interfaces 10, 17742–17755 (2018).
- Yao, R. et al. Olfactory ensheathing cells for spinal cord injury: sniffing out the issues. *Cell Transplant.* 27, 879–889 (2018).
- Gomez, R. M. et al. Cell therapy for spinal cord injury with olfactory ensheathing glia cells (OECs). *Glia* 66, 1267–1301 (2018).
- Delarue, Q. et al. Inhibition of ADAMTS-4 expression in olfactory ensheathing cells enhances recovery after transplantation within spinal cord injury. J. Neurotrauma 37, 507–516 (2020).
- Wright, A. A. et al. Enhancing the therapeutic potential of olfactory ensheathing cells in spinal cord repair using neurotrophins. *Cell Transplant*. 27, 867–878 (2018).
- Zhang, L, Zhuang, X, Chen, Y. & Xia, H. Intravenous transplantation of olfactory bulb ensheathing cells for a spinal cord hemisection injury rat model. *Cell Transplant.* 28, 1585–1602 (2019).
- Gomes, E. D. et al. Co-transplantation of adipose tissue-derived stromal cells and olfactory ensheathing cells for spinal cord injury repair. *Stem Cells* 36, 696–708 (2018).
- Jessen, K. R. & Arthur-Farraj, P. Repair Schwann cell update: Adaptive reprogramming, EMT, and stemness in regenerating nerves. *Glia* 67, 421–437 (2019).
- Pearse, D. D., Bastidas, J., Izabel, S. S. & Ghosh, M. Schwann cell Transplantation subdues the pro-inflammatory innate immune cell response after spinal cord injury. *Int J. Mol. Sci.* 19, 2550 (2018).
- Cerqueira, S. R. et al. Decellularized peripheral nerve supports Schwann cell transplants and axon growth following spinal cord injury. *Biomaterials* 177, 176–185 (2018).
- Zhang, Z. G., Buller, B. & Chopp, M. Exosomes beyond stem cells for restorative therapy in stroke and neurological injury. *Nat. Rev. Neurol.* 15, 193–203 (2019).
- van Niel, G., D'Angelo, G. & Raposo, G. Shedding light on the cell biology of extracellular vesicles. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* 19, 213–228 (2018).
- Huang, J. H. et al. Systemic administration of exosomes released from mesenchymal stromal cells attenuates apoptosis, inflammation, and promotes angiogenesis after spinal cord injury in rats. J. Neurotrauma 34, 3388–3396 (2017).
- Harrell, C. R. et al. Molecular mechanisms responsible for therapeutic potential of mesenchymal stem cell-derived secretome. *Cells* 8, E467 (2019).

- Sun, G. et al. hucMSC derived exosomes promote functional recovery in spinal cord injury mice via attenuating inflammation. *Mater. Sci. Eng. C. Mater. Biol. Appl.* 89, 194–204 (2018).
- Rong, Y. et al. Neural stem cell-derived small extracellular vesicles attenuate apoptosis and neuroinflammation after traumatic spinal cord injury by activating autophagy. *Cell Death Dis.* **10**, 340 (2019).
- Tran, P. H. L. et al. Exosomes and nanoengineering: a match made for precision therapeutics. *Adv. Mater.* 32, e1904040 (2019).
- Kim, H. Y. et al. Therapeutic efficacy-potentiated and diseased organtargeting nanovesicles derived from mesenchymal stem cells for spinal cord injury treatment. *Nano Lett.* 18, 4965–4975 (2018).
- Guo, S. et al. Intranasal delivery of mesenchymal stem cell derived exosomes loaded with phosphatase and tensin homolog siRNA repairs complete spinal cord injury. ACS Nano. 13, 10015–10028 (2019).
- Chen, X. et al. Functional multichannel poly(propylene fumarate)-collagen scaffold with collagen-binding neurotrophic factor 3 promotes neural regeneration after transected spinal cord injury. *Adv. Healthc. Mater.* 7, e1800315 (2018).
- Volpato, F. Z., Fuhrmann, T., Migliaresi, C., Hutmacher, D. W. & Dalton, P. D. Using extracellular matrix for regenerative medicine in the spinal cord. *Bio-materials* 34, 4945–4955 (2013).
- Liu, D. et al. Different functional bio-scaffolds share similar neurological mechanism to promote locomotor recovery of canines with complete spinal cord injury. *Biomaterials* **214**, 119230 (2019).
- Seliktar, D. Designing cell-compatible hydrogels for biomedical applications. Science 336, 1124–1128 (2012).
- Zhang, Y. S. & Khademhosseini, A. Advances in engineering hydrogels. *Science* 356, eaaf3627 (2017).
- Caron, I. et al. A new three dimensional biomimetic hydrogel to deliver factors secreted by human mesenchymal stem cells in spinal cord injury. *Biomaterials* 75, 135–147 (2016).
- Papa, S. et al. Mesenchymal stem cells encapsulated into biomimetic hydrogel scaffold gradually release CCL2 chemokine in situ preserving cytoarchitecture and promoting functional recovery in spinal cord injury. J. Control. Release 278, 49–56 (2018).
- Dong, Y. et al. Engineering the cell microenvironment using novel photoresponsive hydrogels. ACS Appl Mater. Interfaces 10, 12374–12389 (2018).
- McKay, C. A. et al. An injectable, calcium responsive composite hydrogel for the treatment of acute spinal cord injury. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 6, 1424–1438 (2014).
- Wu, C. et al. Cell-laden electroconductive hydrogel simulating nerve matrix to deliver electrical cues and promote neurogenesis. ACS Appl Mater. Interfaces 11, 22152–22163 (2019).
- Bonizzato, M. et al. Brain-controlled modulation of spinal circuits improves recovery from spinal cord injury. *Nat. Commun.* 9, 3015 (2018).
- Zhou, L. et al. Soft conducting polymer hydrogels cross-linked and doped by tannic acid for spinal cord injury repair. ACS Nano. 12, 10957–10967 (2018).
- Koffler, J. et al. Biomimetic 3D-printed scaffolds for spinal cord injury repair. Nat. Med. 25, 263–269 (2019).
- Liu, Z., Tang, M., Zhao, J., Chai, R. & Kang, J. Looking into the future: toward advanced 3D biomaterials for stem-cell-based regenerative medicine. *Adv. Mater.* 30, e1705388 (2018).
- Sun, F. et al. 3D poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) scaffolds for treating spinal cord injury. J. Biomed. Nanotechnol. 13, 290–302 (2017).
- Sun, Y. et al. 3D printing collagen/chitosan scaffold ameliorated axon regeneration and neurological recovery after spinal cord injury. J. Biomed. Mater. Res A. 107, 1898–1908 (2019).
- 97. Joung, D. et al. 3D printed stem-cell derived neural progenitors generate spinal cord scaffolds. *Adv. Funct. Mater.* **28**, 10 (2018).
- Papa, S., Rossi, F., Vismara, I., Forloni, G. & Veglianese, P. Nanovector-mediated drug delivery in spinal cord injury: a multitarget approach. ACS Chem. Neurosci. 10, 1173–1182 (2019).
- Song, Y. H., Agrawal, N. K., Griffin, J. M. & Schmidt, C. E. Recent advances in nanotherapeutic strategies for spinal cord injury repair. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 148, 38–59 (2018).
- Papa, S. et al. Early modulation of pro-inflammatory microglia by minocycline loaded nanoparticles confers long lasting protection after spinal cord injury. *Biomaterials* **75**, 13–24 (2016).
- Vismara, I. et al. Selective modulation of A1 astrocytes by drug-loaded nanostructured gel in spinal cord injury. ACS Nano. 14, 360–371 (2020).

- Keefe, K. M., Sheikh, I. S. & Smith, G. M. Targeting neurotrophins to specific populations of neurons: NGF, BDNF, and NT-3 and their relevance for treatment of spinal cord injury. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 18, 548 (2017).
- Xu, D. et al. Efficient delivery of nerve growth factors to the central nervous system for neural regeneration. *Adv. Mater.* **31**, e1900727 (2019).
- Rosich, K., Hanna, B. F., Ibrahim, R. K., Hellenbrand, D. J. & Hanna, A. The effects of glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor after spinal cord injury. *J. Neurotrauma* 34, 3311–3325 (2017).
- Zhou, Y., Wang, Z., Li, J., Li, X. & Xiao, J. Fibroblast growth factors in the management of spinal cord injury. J. Cell Mol. Med. 22, 25–37 (2018).
- Allahdadi, K. J. et al. IGF-1 overexpression improves mesenchymal stem cell survival and promotes neurological recovery after spinal cord injury. *Stem Cell Res. Ther.* **10**, 146 (2019).
- Ong, W., Pinese, C. & Chew, S. Y. Scaffold-mediated sequential drug/gene delivery to promote nerve regeneration and remyelination following traumatic nerve injuries. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 149-150, 19–48 (2019).
- Anderson, M. A. et al. Required growth facilitators propel axon regeneration across complete spinal cord injury. *Nature* 561, 396–400 (2018).
- Yang, Z. et al. NT3-chitosan elicits robust endogenous neurogenesis to enable functional recovery after spinal cord injury. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 112, 13354–13359 (2015).
- 111. Wang, C. et al. An injectable heparin-Laponite hydrogel bridge FGF4 for spinal cord injury by stabilizing microtubule and improving mitochondrial function. *Theranostics* **9**, 7016–7032 (2019).
- Serradj, N., Agger, S. F. & Hollis, E. R. 2nd corticospinal circuit plasticity in motor rehabilitation from spinal cord injury. *Neurosci. Lett.* 652, 94–104 (2017).
- 113. Torres-Espin, A. et al. Eliciting inflammation enables successful rehabilitative training in chronic spinal cord injury. *Brain* **141**, 1946–1962 (2018).
- Takeoka, A., Vollenweider, I., Courtine, G. & Arber, S. Muscle spindle feedback directs locomotor recovery and circuit reorganization after spinal cord injury. *Cell* 159, 1626–1639 (2014).
- James, N. D., McMahon, S. B., Field-Fote, E. C. & Bradbury, E. J. Neuromodulation in the restoration of function after spinal cord injury. *Lancet Neurol.* 17, 905–917 (2018).
- Arpin, D. J., Ugiliweneza, B., Forrest, G., Harkema, S. J. & Rejc, E. Optimizing neuromuscular electrical stimulation pulse width and amplitude to promote central activation in individuals with severe spinal cord injury. *Front. Physiol.* **10**, 1310 (2019).
- Sakellaridi, S. et al. Intrinsic variable learning for brain-machine interface control by human anterior intraparietal cortex. *Neuron* **102**, 694–705 e693 (2019).
- Shanechi, M. M. Brain-machine interfaces from motor to mood. *Nat. Neurosci.* 22, 1554–1564 (2019).
- Cote, M. P., Murray, M. & Lemay, M. A. Rehabilitation strategies after spinal cord injury: inquiry into the mechanisms of success and failure. *J. Neurotrauma* 34, 1841–1857 (2017).
- Cobianchi, S., Arbat-Plana, A., Lopez-Alvarez, V. M. & Navarro, X. Neuroprotective effects of exercise treatments after injury: the dual role of neurotrophic factors. *Curr. Neuropharmacol.* **15**, 495–518 (2017).
- Guo, L. Y., Lozinski, B. & Yong, V. W. Exercise in multiple sclerosis and its models: focus on the central nervous system outcomes. *J. Neurosci. Res.* 98, 509–523 (2020).
- Asboth, L. et al. Cortico-reticulo-spinal circuit reorganization enables functional recovery after severe spinal cord contusion. *Nat. Neurosci.* 21, 576–588 (2018).
- 123. Fu, J., Wang, H., Deng, L. & Li, J. Exercise training promotes functional recovery after spinal cord injury. *Neural Plast.* **2016**, 4039580 (2016).
- Liang, Z. W., Lei, T., Wang, S., Luo, Z. J. & Hu, X. Y. A simple electrical stimulation cell culture system on the myelination of dorsal root ganglia and Schwann cells. *Biotechniques* 67, 11–15 (2019).

- 125. Taccola, G. et al. Acute neuromodulation restores spinally-induced motor responses after severe spinal cord injury. *Exp. Neurol.* **327**, 113246 (2020).
- Hofstoetter, U. S. et al. Transcutaneous spinal cord stimulation induces temporary attenuation of spasticity in individuals with spinal cord injury. J. Neurotrauma 37, 481–493 (2020).
- Gill, M. L. et al. Neuromodulation of lumbosacral spinal networks enables independent stepping after complete paraplegia. *Nat. Med.* 24, 1677–1682 (2018).
- Wagner, F. B. et al. Targeted neurotechnology restores walking in humans with spinal cord injury. *Nature* 563, 65–71 (2018).
- Inanici, F. et al. Transcutaneous electrical spinal stimulation promotes longterm recovery of upper extremity function in chronic tetraplegia. *IEEE Trans. Neural Syst. Rehabil. Eng.* 26, 1272–1278 (2018).
- Slutzky, M. W. Brain-machine interfaces: powerful tools for clinical treatment and neuroscientific investigations. *Neuroscientist* 25, 139–154 (2019).
- Andersen, R. A., Aflalo, T. & Kellis, S. From thought to action: The brainmachine interface in posterior parietal cortex. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 23, 201902276 (2019).
- Orsborn, A. L. & Pesaran, B. Parsing learning in networks using brain-machine interfaces. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.* 46, 76–83 (2017).
- Rosenfeld, J. V. & Wong, Y. T. Neurobionics and the brain-computer interface: current applications and future horizons. *Med J. Aust.* 206, 363–368 (2017).
- 134. Hochberg, L. R. et al. Reach and grasp by people with tetraplegia using a neurally controlled robotic arm. *Nature* **485**, 372–375 (2012).
- Benabid, A. L. et al. An exoskeleton controlled by an epidural wireless brainmachine interface in a tetraplegic patient: a proof-of-concept demonstration. *Lancet Neurol.* 18, 1112–1122 (2019).
- Bouton, C. E. et al. Restoring cortical control of functional movement in a human with quadriplegia. *Nature* **533**, 247–250 (2016).
- 137. Capogrosso, M. et al. A brain-spine interface alleviating gait deficits after spinal cord injury in primates. *Nature* **539**, 284–288 (2016).
- Ajiboye, A. B. et al. Restoration of reaching and grasping movements through brain-controlled muscle stimulation in a person with tetraplegia: a proof-ofconcept demonstration. *Lancet* 389, 1821–1830 (2017).
- 139. Flesher, S. N. et al. Intracortical microstimulation of human somatosensory cortex. *Sci. Transl. Med.* **8**, 361ra141 (2016).
- O'Doherty, J. E. et al. Active tactile exploration using a brain-machine-brain interface. *Nature* 479, 228–231 (2011).
- O'Doherty, J. E., Shokur, S., Medina, L. E., Lebedev, M. A. & Nicolelis, M. A. L. Creating a neuroprosthesis for active tactile exploration of textures. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 116, 21821–21827 (2019).
- 142. Sun, L. et al. Co-transplantation of human umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cells and human neural stem cells improves the outcome in rats with spinal cord injury. *Cell Transplant.* **28**, 893–906 (2019).
- Ma, K et al. Insulin-like growth factor-1 enhances neuroprotective effects of neural stem cell exosomes after spinal cord injury via an miR-219a-2-3p/YY1 mechanism. *Aging (Albany NY)* **11**, 12278–12294 (2019).
- 144. Li, G. et al. Graft of the NT-3 persistent delivery gelatin sponge scaffold promotes axon regeneration, attenuates inflammation, and induces cell migration in rat and canine with spinal cord injury. *Biomaterials* 83, 233–248 (2016).
- 145. Li, L. et al. A MnO2 nanoparticle-dotted hydrogel promotes spinal cord repair via regulating reactive oxygen species microenvironment and synergizing with mesenchymal stem cells. ACS Nano. 13, 14283–14293 (2019).
- 146. Lai, B. Q. et al. Tissue-engineered neural network graft relays excitatory signal in the completely transected canine spinal cord. *Adv. Sci.* **6**, 19 (2019).
- Massoto, T. B. et al. Mesenchymal stem cells and treadmill training enhance function and promote tissue preservation after spinal cord injury. *Brain Res.* 1726, 11 (2020).
- Angeli, C. A. et al. Recovery of over-ground walking after chronic motor complete spinal cord injury. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 379, 1244–1250 (2018).
- 149. Shokur, S. et al. Training with brain-machine interfaces, visuo-tactile feedback and assisted locomotion improves sensorimotor, visceral, and psychological signs in chronic paraplegic patients. *PloS ONE* **13**, e0206464 (2018).